

U.S. GOVERNMENT

SPARK
CHARTS

BACKGROUND

ORIGIN OF THE FEDERAL SYSTEM

In the United States, the federal system of government combines a system of state governments with a centralized national government

ARTICLES OF CONFEDERATION

- Ratified in **1781**, the Articles of Confederation set up a weak association of states that favored states' rights over central power so that states retained their sovereignty
- Disturbances like **Shays' Rebellion** (1786) exposed the national government's inability to impose order and protect the welfare of the nation, encouraging movements for a more centralized, stronger system of government
- Delegates met at the **Annapolis Convention** of 1786 and the **Constitutional Convention** of 1787 to amend the Articles and create a new framework for government

U.S. CONSTITUTION

- Ratified in **1788**, the U.S. Constitution set up a stronger central government composed of 3 branches—legislative, executive, and judicial

- To prevent one branch from becoming too powerful, the Constitution implemented:

- 1. Separation of Powers:** the legislative branch (a bicameral Congress) makes laws, the executive branch (the president) oversees the enforcement of these laws, and the judicial branch (courts) interprets these laws with regard to the Constitution
- 2. Checks and Balances:** the different branches of government overlap in some areas, allowing each branch to "check" the power of another:
 - The president can veto acts of Congress and appoint Supreme Court justices
 - Congress can override the president's veto and impeach federal officers, including the president, the vice president, and federal judges; the Senate must confirm the president's nominees for the Supreme Court
 - The judicial branch has the power to declare acts of Congress unconstitutional (this power, not made explicit in the Constitution, was first asserted in the 1803 case *Marbury v. Madison*)

- In the debate for ratification, two sides emerged:

- 1. Federalists**, led by Alexander Hamilton and James Madison, favored the Constitution for its strong central government
- 2. Anti-Federalists**, led by Thomas Jefferson, feared the Constitution would produce a tyrannical central power and pushed for a less centralized system in which the states would retain their sovereignty

THE BILL OF RIGHTS

- Ratified in 1791, the Bill of Rights is the first 10 amendments of the Constitution
- Explicitly guarantees **individual liberties** and **states' rights**
- Guards against the potential tyranny of the central government
- Was a **concession** made by Federalists to Anti-Federalists to ensure that the Constitution would be ratified: many states agreed to ratify the Constitution only on condition that a Bill of Rights would be added during the first meeting of Congress

FEDERAL VS. STATE POWERS

FEDERAL POWERS

- 1. Express Powers:** powers explicitly given to the federal government by the Constitution, including the powers to:
 - Collect taxes
 - Regulate interstate commerce
 - Coin money, regulate currency, set standards of weights and measures
 - Declare war
 - Raise and maintain an army and navy
- 2. Implied Powers:** powers considered "necessary and proper" for carrying out the enumerated (or express) powers, based on the elastic clause (article I, section 8, clause 5 of the Constitution)
- For example, in 1791 Federalists in Congress argued that creating a national bank was "necessary and proper" for Congress to execute its enumerated powers to coin and borrow money and regulate currency; *McCulloch v. Maryland* (1820) confirmed Congress's right to found a bank

- 3. Denied Powers:** powers denied to the federal government by the Constitution, including:

- Writ of habeas corpus cannot be suspended unless in cases of rebellion or invasion, when deemed necessary to national safety
 - No bill of attainder or ex post facto law can be passed
- 4. "Supreme Law of the Land":** the Constitution and federal laws take precedence over state laws (article VI of the Constitution)

STATE POWERS

- 1. Powers Reserved for the States:** "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people" (Tenth Amendment in the Bill of Rights)

- 2. Overlapping Powers:** powers allotted to both state governments and the federal government, including:

- Levy taxes
 - Borrow money
 - Charter corporations
- 3. State-to-State Relations:**
 - Full faith and credit clause: each state must honor other states' public acts and records (article IV, section 1)
 - A citizen of one state is a citizen in every state, and is entitled to all the privileges and immunities of those states (article IV, section II, clause 1)
 - Anyone charged in a state with a crime who escapes to another state must be returned to the state where the crime was committed (article IV, section II, clause 2)
 - Congress may admit new states to the Union, but no new states can be created within the boundaries of existing states without the approval of Congress and the state legislatures concerned (article V, section III)

LEGISLATIVE BRANCH

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

Qualifications and Logistics

- Qualifications: at least 25 years old, a U.S. citizen for at least 7 years, a resident of the state from which he or she is chosen
- Term of office: 2 years; elections held every 2 years
- Number of representatives fixed at 435
- Number of representatives per state proportionate to state population, with every state getting at least 1
- In the 107th Congress (2001–2002), California had the most representatives (52)

Gerrymandering

- Dividing regions into election districts in order to give an advantage to a particular political party or interest group

4. Majority and Minority Whips

- Enforce the party line
- Line up votes for legislation

5. Committees

- Propose and evaluate bills, recommend action on bills
- Help divide work in the House, allowing members to specialize in certain subject matters, usually in matters important to their constituents
 - For example, a representative from an agrarian Midwest district would likely be assigned to the Agriculture Committee
- **Standing Committees:** of the 23 currently standing House committees, the most important include:
 - Rules Committee: sets House rules; can defeat almost

- In 1917 a **cloture** resolution was passed allowing the senate to halt a filibuster with a 2/3 vote (60 senators)
- One of the only means for minority interests in the Senate to thwart the interests and agenda of the majority

Sole Powers

- To try an impeached official
- To confirm presidential appointments—Supreme Court justices, ambassadors, etc. (by a 2/3 vote)
- To ratify treaties (by a 2/3 vote)

Leadership Positions

- 1. Role of the U.S. Vice President**
 - Serves as president of the Senate

FDR served 3 complete terms in office and died early in his fourth (1945)

- Two-term limit became law in 1951, with the ratification of the Twenty-Second Amendment

Power

- Commander-in-chief of armed forces
- Accepts or vetoes congressional bills
- Makes treaties with the "advice and consent" of Senate
- Makes appointments: federal judges, ambassadors, cabinet members—also with "advice and consent" of Senate
- Gives a State of the Union message to Congress recommending a legislative agenda
- Oversees enforcement of federal laws
- Can grant pardons in all federal cases except impeachment
- Receives ambassadors and other public ministers
- The Founding Fathers intended the executive role simply to enforce congressional laws, but the president has become a much more **active and influential** position
 - Andrew Jackson** was the first president to use the veto power extensively, strongly asserting his political will, following his example, many presidents since have set the nation's legislative agenda

- The **Twelfth Amendment**, ratified in 1804, revised the election process so that candidates clearly run as either president or vice president

Power

- Presides over the Senate, but votes only in case of a tie
- Becomes president if the president is unable to serve

DEPARTMENTS AND OFFICERS

White House Staff

- President works closely with a team of aides and advisers
- Often these aides are longtime political associates and allies
- Chief of staff heads and coordinates the entire staff

Cabinet

- Not expressly provided for in the Constitution
- Basis for its creation is in Article II, Section II of the Constitution: "[The president] may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices"
- Composed of the heads of 14 federal agencies (listed below) who are appointed by the president and confirmed by the Senate
- Advisers unofficially called "cabinet" since the 1790s; name not officially recognized in law until 1907

- Department of the Interior
- Department of Justice
- Department of Labor
- Department of State
- Department of Transportation
- Department of the Treasury
- Department of Veterans Affairs

Executive Offices of the President

- Offices included in the executive branch, including:
 - Council of Economic Advisers
 - Council on Environmental Quality
 - Council on Women's Initiatives and Outreach
 - Domestic Policy Council
 - National Economic Council
 - National Security Council (NSC)
 - Office of Administration
 - Office of Faith-Based and Community Initiatives
 - Office of the First Lady
 - Office of Management and Budget (OMB)
 - Office of National AIDS Policy
 - Office of National Drug Control Policy
 - Office of Science and Technology Policy
 - Office of Homeland Security (poised to be an executive agency at the time this chart went to press)
 - Office of the Vice President of the United States
 - President's Foreign Intelligence Advisory Board
 - United States Trade Representative (USTR)

ELECTING AND REMOVING THE PRESIDENT

PROCESS OF ELECTION

- General presidential elections are held in each state, and the winner receives all the electoral votes for that state.

- As a result, candidates tend to spend most of their campaigning time in the most populous states, where the most electoral votes are at stake
- California has the most electoral votes (54)

candidate who wins votes from the majority of states (26) becomes president

- In 1824, Andrew Jackson won a plurality but not a majority of the votes in a five-candidate election; in the run-off election in the House, John Quincy Adams defeated Jackson

- A conviction requires a 2/3 vote in the Senate
- Andrew Johnson** and **William Jefferson Clinton** are the only 2 presidents (so far) to be impeached by the House; both were acquitted by the Senate

JUDICIAL BRANCH: THE SUPREME COURT

The Supreme Court is the only court expressly provided for in the Constitution; Congress is given the power to establish lower federal courts as it sees fit—"to constitute Tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court" (article I, section 8)

STRUCTURE

- Justices are nominated by the president and confirmed by the Senate
- No qualifications are laid out in the Constitution
- Nomination is generally based on candidate's competence, ethics, ideology, political support, political activism
- Term of office: hold position for life, barring resignation or impeachment
- Number of Judges:**
 - Originally 6 when court was established in 1789
 - At one point after Civil War, it had 10
 - Since 1869, it has 9
- Court Packing Scheme:**
 - In 1937, Franklin Delano Roosevelt tried to increase the number of judges on the court (1 new judge for every judge over age 70) in his hopes to make the court more liberal and supportive of his progressive New Deal policy
 - This "court packing scheme" would have allowed FDR to appoint 6 new judges
 - The Senate rejected the policy change, and FDR lost some credibility
- Chief Justice:**
 - Presides over meetings
 - Assigns writing of opinions
 - Can significantly shape court's direction

- For example, the court under Chief Justice John Marshall, or the **Marshall Court** (1801–1835), greatly enhanced federal power at the expense of states' rights
- The **Warren Court** (1953–1969), under Chief Justice Earl Warren, was liberal and progressive, expanding civil and political rights

FEDERAL JURISDICTION

- Court has jurisdiction over any case involving:
 - the U.S. Constitution, federal laws, treaties, and admiralty and maritime affairs
 - ambassadors, other public ministers, or consuls
 - cases in which the U.S. or a state itself is a party
 - interstate affairs
- Original Jurisdiction** in all cases involving a state or an ambassador or other public minister or consul
- Appellate Jurisdiction** in federal cases (sometimes state cases) in which the original decision is appealed

3 PATHS TO THE SUPREME COURT

1. Writs of Certiorari

- Court grants writ when agrees to hear a case
- 4 of 9 justices must agree to hear a case
- If court refuses to hear a case, then lower court ruling stands—does not necessarily mean that the court agrees with this ruling, however
- Court might refuse to hear a case for several reasons, including: case lacks national importance; issues at stake too narrow, not a federal question; court too divided on the matter

2. Right of Appeal

- Court must hear appeals of decisions made by three-judge district courts
- Can simply affirm or reverse decision with a short statement

3. In Forma Pauperis Petition

- According to federal law, any indigent who takes a "pauper's oath" postponing payment of required fees can submit a case to a federal court
- Most of these petitions are written by inmates in federal and state prisons
- Many petitions go unanswered; in rare instances, the Court holds hearings, re-opens case

NOTABLE SUPREME COURT DECISIONS

- Marbury v. Madison** (1803) established the principle of judicial review, the Supreme Court's power to rule an act of Congress unconstitutional; court did not again invoke this power until the **Dred Scott** (1857) decision
- McCulloch v. Maryland** (1819) established that the federal government's power must be considered supreme within its sphere, and that states do not have the power to interfere with the exercise of federal powers
- Gibbons v. Ogden** (1824) interpreted Congress's right to regulate interstate commerce to include all forms of business, not just the exchange of goods
- Dred Scott v. Sandford** (1857) effectively nullified the Missouri Compromise and declared slaves to be property, not citizens
- Slaughterhouse Cases** (1873) drew a distinction between state and federal citizenship, and ruled that the

JUDICIAL BRANCH: THE SUPREME COURT (continued)

Fourteenth Amendment does not guard against all instances of state discrimination; in its ruling, court considered the amendment's original purpose: to protect citizenship rights of freed slaves

- **Munn v. Illinois** (1877) allowed states to regulate private businesses when "public interests" are involved; has since been modified
- **Plessy v. Ferguson** (1896) ruled segregation was legal as long as accommodations were "separate but equal"
- **Cumming v. County Board of Ed.** (1899) ruled that laws establishing separate schools for whites are constitutional even if there are no comparable schools for blacks
- **Northern Securities Co. v. U.S.** (1904) was the first case in which the Sherman Anti-Trust Act (1890) was successfully invoked to break up a business monopoly
- **Muller v. Oregon** (1908) authorized states to pass laws setting maximum working hours
- **Standard Oil Co. of New Jersey v. U.S.** (1911) authorized the U.S. to break up trusts for "unreasonable restraint of trade"
- **Schenck v. U.S.** (1919) set the "clear and present danger" standard for restricting free speech, especially applicable during war time; upheld the Espionage Act (1917)
- **Schechter v. U.S.** (1935) declared the National Recovery

Administration (part of FDR's New Deal) unconstitutional on the basis that the NRA gave the executive branch regulatory powers that belonged exclusively to Congress

- **Dennis et al. v. U.S.** (1951) upheld the Smith Act (1940), which made it a crime to advocate overthrowing the government
- **Brown v. Board of Education** (1954) declared segregation in schools unconstitutional, overturning the "separate but equal" doctrine established in **Plessy** (1896)
- **Roth v. U.S.** (1957) defined obscene publications as those that attract "prurient interests" and lack any "redeeming social importance"
- **Mapp v. Ohio** (1961) extended the federal exclusionary rule to states; this rule prohibited illegally obtained evidence from being presented in courts
- **Engel v. Vitale** (1962) ruled school prayer unconstitutional on the basis that it violates the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment
- **Baker v. Carr** (1962) granted federal courts jurisdiction over state apportionment systems to assure that all citizens' votes are granted equal weight
- **Gideon v. Wainwright** (1963) required states to provide indigent defendants in felony cases with public defenders
- **Miranda v. Arizona** (1966) required police to make sus-

pects aware of their rights to remain silent and to have an attorney present during questioning—the so-called **Miranda rights**

- **Loving v. Virginia** (1967) declared laws against interracial marriage unconstitutional
- **New York Times Co. v. U.S.** (1971) overturned Justice Department's order to restrict free press in interests of national security (the Justice Department aimed to block publication of the so-called **Pentagon Papers**); firmly protected freedom of the press
- **Roe v. Wade** (1973) ruled unconstitutional all laws outlawing abortion (except in the third trimester) on the basis these laws violate the Fourteenth Amendment's implicit right for women to make private decisions about their lives and reproductive capacities
- **University of California v. Bakke** (1978) allowed universities to admit students on the basis of race in order to counter discrimination
- **Bowers v. Hardwick** (1986) authorized states to regulate sexual interaction conducted in private between consenting adults
- **Webster v. Reproductive Health Services** (1989) allowed states to restrict access to abortion services significantly

HOW A BILL BECOMES A LAW

Bill is Introduced in Either House or Senate

- Exception: revenue bills must originate in the House

First Reading

- Bills are no longer read out loud, but instead entered into the *Senate Journal* or the *House Journal* and referred to the appropriate committees

Referral to Committee

- Request input from relevant agencies
- Public hearings held only if deemed necessary, if bill deemed important enough
- **Markup:** subcommittee makes a favorable, unfavorable, or table recommendation to the full committee, sometimes with amendments
- **Final Committee Action:** bills are discussed, amended, and voted on—usually either passed on to the full house or tabled indefinitely

Second Reading

- Report: committee staff issues a report explaining the bill, the committee's actions and findings, and why it should be enacted
- Bill is placed on the calendar
- Member debate
 - Senators can indefinitely postpone a vote with a filibuster, but filibuster can be halted by a 2/3 vote
 - The amount of debate in the House is initially limited by a cloture rule; however, debate may be lengthened
- Member amendments are offered

Third Reading by Title Only and a Vote

Bill Goes to Other Chamber

- Bill is either
 - Defeated
 - Passed as is

- Passed with new amendments, then sent to a House-Senate conference committee, and finally back to both houses for a final vote

Bill is Given to President

- Bill is either
 - Signed (approved) and becomes law
 - Held, and then
 - Becomes law after 10 days
 - Is **pocket vetoed:** if Congress adjourns within the days, bill is automatically defeated
 - Vetoes, and bill is returned to originating house
 - The house of origin may override the veto by 2/3 greater vote; the bill is then sent to the other house if both houses vote to override the veto, the bill becomes law

naturally leads to two parties, since votes and issues become either-or questions and people feel their votes are worthless if they do not vote for the front-runner or nearest challenger

- **Two parties evolved in the 1790s** around major issues, particularly the centralization of the government (states' rights versus federal power) and support for Britain versus France

1. Federalists

- Led by Alexander Hamilton
- Pushed for a strong central government
- Pro-England
- Centralized in the Northeast

2. Republicans (officially, Democratic-Republican Party)

- Led by Thomas Jefferson and James Madison
- Aimed to limit the power of the central government and expand individual and states' rights
- Tended to be pro-France
- Centralized in the South
- Party politics has characterized the U.S. political scene ever since, with the exception of a brief return to a one-party system during the **Era of Good Feelings** (roughly 1816–1828), when Republicans faced little or no opposition
- Identification with parties has changed little in recent times, other than a steady increase in people who identify themselves as Independents and a decrease in those who identify themselves as Democratic

National Party Convention

- Meets during the presidential election year to choose a presidential candidate
- Sets the **platform:** a vague outline of the party's position on a variety of issues, meant to focus the party ideology and set broad campaign themes

Found its roots in Jefferson's **Democratic-Republican Party** (see above)

- First formalized in support of **Andrew Jackson** after Jackson, a Republican, lost the 1824 election to Republican rival John Quincy Adams, even though Jackson had won more popular and electoral votes
- Jackson's supporters, led by Martin Van Buren and John C. Calhoun, rallied together and formed what became known as the Democratic Party
- Jackson won the presidency in 1828
- Throughout the mid- and late 1800s, the party **championed states' rights** and fought against political domination by the economic elite
- Before the Civil War, found its core support in the **South** and was the party of slaveholders
- After the Civil War, was the champion of Confederates and opposed congressional Reconstruction
- Industrialization later pulled the party toward **social causes**, as workers were increasingly exploited without redress
- The party underwent a **major transformation** in the 1930s during Franklin Delano Roosevelt's presidency, when Democrats began to embrace a more aggressive and involved role for federal government
- **FDR's New Deal policies** cost Democrats the support of the white South—their traditional stronghold—and won them the support of many blacks, farmers, urban workers, and women, called the **New Democratic Coalition**
 - This support base remains in place today

Republicans

- In modern times, the more **conservative and pro-business** party
- Emerged in the late 1850s as the **Free Soil Party**, with its platform of limiting slavery to the southern states and not allowing slavery's expansion to the territories
- Found its core support in the **North**
- In 1860, the party successfully elected **Abraham Lincoln** president and continued to dominate national politics during the Civil War and early Reconstruction Era

Democratic Party and their opponents

- Composed mostly of southern Republicans, northern Democrats, and social reformers
- Gained in popularity throughout the 1830s
- Whig candidate William Henry Harrison won the presidential election in 1840 (died in office)
- Party began to disintegrate in the 1850s along sectional (North-South) lines—primarily over the issues of slavery and protective tariffs
- Many antislavery Whigs defected to the **Republican Party**, effectively killing the Whig Party
- Anti-immigrant and anti-Catholic parties like the **Know-Nothings** also weakened the Whig Party

Populists

- Begun in 1892
- Composed mostly of farmers from the Midwest and South and poor laborers
- Platform included **"free silver"** (the unlimited coinage of silver), public ownership of railroads, immigration restriction, and the direct election of senators
- In 1896, the Democrats appropriated parts of the Populist platform and nominated **William Jennings Bryan** president; Bryan lost to Republican William McKinley
- Populists faded from the national scene after Bryan's loss

Progressives, or the Bull Moose Party

- In 1912, Theodore Roosevelt and his supporters split from the Republican Party, angered over President William Howard Taft's conservative, pro-business policies, formed the Progressive Party, nicknamed the Bull Moose Party
- Supported **progressive policies**, including **tight business regulation**, primary elections, the prohibition of child labor, women's suffrage, national social insurance, and restrictions on the use of injunctions in labor disputes
- The **most successful third party in U.S. history**, with Roosevelt winning more than 27% of the popular vote and Taft's 23%; Democrat Woodrow Wilson won the election

PARTY SYSTEM (continued)

Socialists

- Gained in popularity during the **Progressive Era** (roughly 1900–1917)
- Won control of a number of city governments and elected some members of Congress and state legislatures
- Socialist **Eugene Debs** was a five-time presidential candidate

Reform Party

- Formed in 1995

- As an independent, Perot won 19% of the popular vote in the 1992 presidential election
- As a Reform Party candidate in 1996, Perot again finished third, but with a lower popular vote
- Reform platform includes campaign-finance reform, a balanced budget, paying off the national debt, open primaries, immigration restriction, and replacing the electoral-college system with a popular vote
- Elected some members of state legislatures, including

Green Party

- Formed in 1984
- Values include grassroots democracy, campaign-finance reform, social justice, ecological conservation, strict business regulation and consumer protection, an end to the electoral-college system, and universal health care
- Elected members to city council and state legislatures: at least 135 Greens holding office in 20 states in 2001
- Ralph Nader ran as the Green candidate in the 1996 and

MEDIA STRUCTURE AND EFFECT

Overview

- Called the **fifth branch of government**
- Not elected; instead usually supported by advertising and often driven by profit
- Politically uncensored, except in regard to obscenity and in times of war
- One of the few true free presses in the world
 - Very rarely in modern times has a publication been prevented from publishing by the U.S. government (see *New York Times Co. v. U.S.* in the Supreme Court section)

History

- Newspapers were first launched by political groups to spread their ideas
 - For example, in the 1790s, Republicans roused political awareness and spread criticism of the Federalist Party through America's first opposition newspaper, *The National Gazette*
- The telegram (mid-1800s) sped the sharing of information, giving newspapers a new purpose—to spread facts and human-interest stories—and separating them from political parties
- In the mid-1800s, increasing literacy and decreasing printing costs led to the **penny presses**, which had sensationalist tendencies, and to **independent publications** funded by entrepreneurs, which could provide more autonomous political reports
- Modern media is now focused primarily on creating an **objective journalism**
- Since the 1960s, a more critical and advocacy-oriented media has evolved as **the new journalism**

Influence

- The media has grown to become a protector and representative of the people, investigating controversy and conspiracy, evaluating politics, and speaking for the public
- **Selective Perception:** people hear what they want to hear
- **Selective Exposure:** people avoid exposure to media with which they disagree
- **Public Relations, or PR:** politicians have become increasingly adept at creating events, managing the press, and rewording, or spinning, the news to a particular ideology
- **Bias:** studies point to a liberal bias in the media, but a number of conservative issues still garner media support, and in general, Republican candidates are endorsed more often than Democrats by the media

Corporate Ownership

- In 1982, 50 companies owned more than 1/2 of the media
- In 1986, 29 companies owned more than 1/2 of the media
- In 1993, 20 companies owned more than 1/2 of the media
- The media is currently dominated by 9 giant corporations:
 - AOL/TimeWarner, Disney, Bertelsmann, Viacom, News Corp, Sony, TCI, Universal, and NBC
 - These companies own interests in TV, film, books, music, retail, amusement, magazines, and newspapers

TYPES

Television

- In the 1960s, TV became the major source of news
- TV has made the presentation of people and ideas more important, giving rise to the **sound bite**—a short “representative” statement or prepared response for use in the media
- In 1990 **CNN** became the first all-news TV channel, blanketing the world with around-the-clock coverage of the Persian Gulf War (1991)

television

Radio

- FDR is famous for effective use of the radio with his **fireside chats**, which boosted the public's confidence in government and won him widespread support
- Political radio shows experienced a resurgence in the 1990s
- Through these talk shows, radio has become a haven for pundits, such as conservative talk-show host Rush Limbaugh
- 90% of all Americans still listen to the radio

Newspapers

- Have a long history in politics, including:
 - The Federalists' *Gazette of the United States*
 - Abolitionist newspapers like William Lloyd Garrison's *The Liberator*
 - The **yellow press** at the end of the end of the nineteenth century
 - Publication of the **Pentagon Papers** during the Vietnam War
- Newspapers are more politically engaged and provide the most in-depth information of all main media sources
- Circulation has remained just above 60 million over the last 20 years

The Internet

- Has become increasingly important in distributing information, providing anonymous contact between organizations and people, and even passing rumors
- E-mail has become an increasingly powerful means of coordinating and sharing information

INTEREST GROUPS

TYPES

Businesses

- Large corporations and small businesses

Groups of Individuals

- Professional associations (doctors, teachers, accountants)

METHODS OF INFLUENCE

Targeted Campaign Finance

- Business groups target the expected winner
 - Use polling, party “safe-seat” districts, and incumbency to predict the winner

- **The Revolving Door:** as administrations change, appointees revolve between government and private positions
- **Influence During Bill Creation:**
 - Supply information and make suggestions about policy during the drafting stage
 - **Ghostwriting:** lobbyists write a bill, make legislative